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F. HESS

UNITED STATES - IX

GRAVURE F. HANFSTAENGL



THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS

(Washington Receives the Sword of the Defeated General)

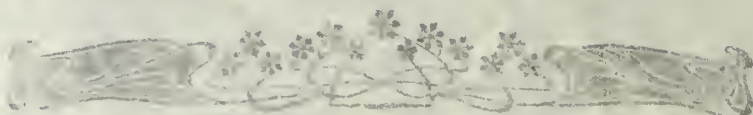
From a painting by the recent German artist, E. Hess

THE great decisive event in the history of America was the surrender of Cornwallis to Washington in 1781. That decided that America was to be a free land, the permanent home of democratic as against monarchic principles, the shelter from which the rule of the people was to spread abroad until popular rule today extends over half of Europe, claims the chief colonies of England, and has even penetrated the ancient world of Asia.

When the American colonies first rebelled against England they hardly hoped or wished for independence. But events swept them on and widened the breach until only independence or complete subjugation could end the fratricidal struggle. When at length the generalship of Washington entrapped Cornwallis in Yorktown with the chief English army in America, it became evident that the loss of these forces would leave Great Britain little chance of continuing the war successfully.

Cornwallis did not personally attend the ceremony of surrender here depicted. He pleaded sickness, and it was his chief aide, General O'Hara, who presented his sword to Washington. In response Washington designated his aide, General Lincoln, to receive the surrender. The picture poetizes the scene and makes it symbolic rather than actual, by grouping around the leaders their French allies, and also the watching Indians, who had first owned the land, and who now saw it pass, without their consent, into a new stage of its development.





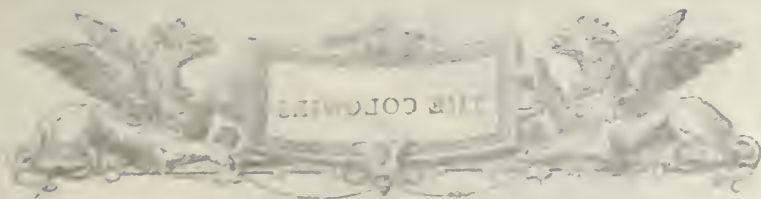
THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS

(Washington, D.C. 20540)

That great desire was in the breast of another
the purveyor of Commodore's shipboard in 1781
that decided that America was in a grand
position of doing good in a grand manner, and
the nation was to be the first to do so. The
first and most popular of the nation's first
schools, the first of kind, and the first of kind.

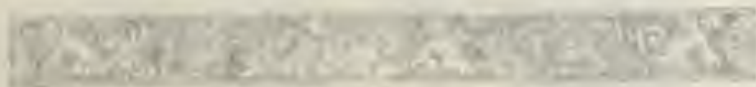


Volume Ninth



OUR EARLIEST NAVAL BATTLE

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OUR EARLIEST NAVAL BATTLE

(The Trader Clayborne Seeks to Drive the Catholics From Chesapeake Bay)

From an early sketch

WHEN England had definitely taken possession of the strip of coast which is now the Atlantic borderline of the United States, its colonization was rapid. The first three colonies had been experimental. Virginia had been founded by the English Government; Massachusetts by English exiles; and New York by Dutch merchants. The later colonies grew up more or less under the wing of these three. Thus Maryland began as an offshoot from Virginia. A Virginian trader, William Clayborne, started a settlement along the upper waters of Chesapeake Bay as early as 1631. He was promised a monopoly of trade with the Indians in that section. The English Government, however, paid no heed to Virginia's promise, and granted the region to Lord Baltimore, an English Catholic, that he might found there a refuge for oppressed Englishmen of his own faith. An expedition of Catholics came out to take possession in 1634.

Great was the wrath of Clayborne at the arrival of the newcomers. He even attempted to defend his proprietary right by force. His little boats attacked those of the Catholics in a fierce battle on Chesapeake Bay, the beginning of America's naval history. Clayborne was defeated, and Maryland became a Catholic colony. But Protestants settled among the Catholics; and Clayborne took advantage of this to rouse actual religious war. He was again defeated, but not till several tiny battles had been fought and much blood shed.







ROGER WILLIAMS IN RHODE ISLAND

(The Exile is Welcomed by His Indian Friends and Finds a Colony)

From a painting by the American artist, Alonzo Chappell

JUST as religious differences led to the founding of Maryland as a separate colony from Virginia, so in the north the religious intolerance of the Massachusetts Puritans led to the establishment of Rhode Island as another colony. It was founded by the Reverend Roger Williams, the great New England "apostle of tolerance." When the other Puritans cast Williams out for refusing to agree with their own narrow doctrine, he was welcomed by the Indians. He learned their language and became their ablest friend. Some of the members of Williams' parish among the Puritans resolved to cast in their lot with his. So under the guidance and direction of the Indians the little party traveled through the wilderness to Rhode Island, and here in 1635 they founded the settlement of Providence.

In Providence, Williams allowed complete religious freedom so long as outward morality was preserved. Hence his little settlement soon became the refuge of all whom the Puritans persecuted in New England. Finally the Massachusetts government sought to reach out and take control of this "ungodly" settlement. This would have meant the loss of all its liberality. So Williams journeyed to England and laid his case before the king. King Charles II, who had little love for the Puritans, gave Williams a charter making Rhode Island a separate colony, the freest of them all.







PENN WELCOMED TO AMERICA

The Great Quaker Collection at the P. to the Dutch Subjects
A new country for the Quakers, 1781-1782

THE Quakers of the United States, who have been
known for their peace and simplicity of life, have
in the year 1781, been driven from their homes in
England and Wales, and have been driven to the
United States, where they have found a new home.
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PENN WELCOMED TO AMERICA

(The Great Quaker Colonizer Brings Peace to His Dutch Subjects)

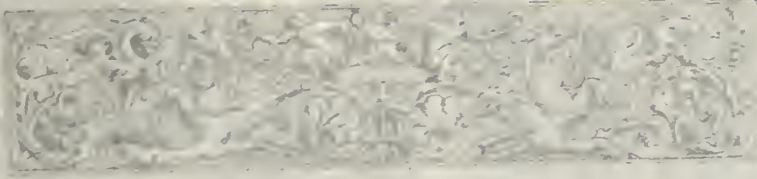
From a drawing by the American artist, Frank Dodd

YET another settlement founded to escape religious persecution was the rich and prosperous colony of Pennsylvania. This began at a somewhat later date than the others, and as all the more promising coast lands had been already granted, it was started as the first inland colony, the "sylvania" or wood lands west of the Delaware River. This region, or at least the shore of the lower river which is now the State of Delaware, had been originally occupied by the Swedes. Then old Peter Stuyvesant marched against the few scattered Swedes and compelled them to accept Dutch rule. A few Dutchmen came among them and the two races lived peaceably enough together until Holland surrendered all her new-world possessions to Great Britain. Then King Charles II granted all the Delaware region to his friend the Quaker, William Penn, that Penn might found a refuge there for his sorely persecuted co-religionists, the Quakers.

Penn, who was a man of rank and wealth, began sending out Quakers to his colony at once. These found the scattered Swedes and Dutch already in possession and had some trouble with them, especially as a chief tenet of the Quaker faith was that of non-resistance to violence. So in 1683 Penn came out to his settlement himself to harmonize all conflicting claims. The former settlers met him with respect, eager for some arrangement; and as there was plenty of land for all, the colony of Pennsylvania was soon highly prosperous.







CHARTERED 028251-002

The first is a list of names of people who have been in contact with the subject.



CHAMPLAIN'S DISASTROUS SHOT

(The French Explorer Stirs the Iroquois to Hatred of France)

From an early sketch

WHILE England was thus building up colonies along the Atlantic coast, another nation was also coming vigorously forward in the effort to colonize the new world. This was France. Frenchmen had discovered the great St. Lawrence River and planted a settlement at Quebec at least as early as 1608. They hoped that these mighty waterways of the north would lead them on to undiscovered empires, perhaps even to India at last. So they pressed westward and southward from Quebec at a period earlier than the settlement of any English colony except Virginia.

That they did not thus reach southward into New York State and perhaps possess all of this region and New England before the English, is due to one of those slender chances on which often hang the fate of a wide future. The French explorer Champlain discovered the lake which bears his name in northern New York in 1608. He made friends with the Huron Indians of that neighborhood and to cement the friendship he joined the Hurons in a battle against a neighboring tribe, the Iroquois. He had only to fire a single death-dealing shot from his musket and the terrified Iroquois fled as from before a resistless demon. Yet that easy victory closed the southward paths to the French. The Iroquois were really a powerful confederacy of Indians. For almost a century they remained bitter enemies of the French and blocked their southward way across New York.







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THE JESUIT EXPLORERS

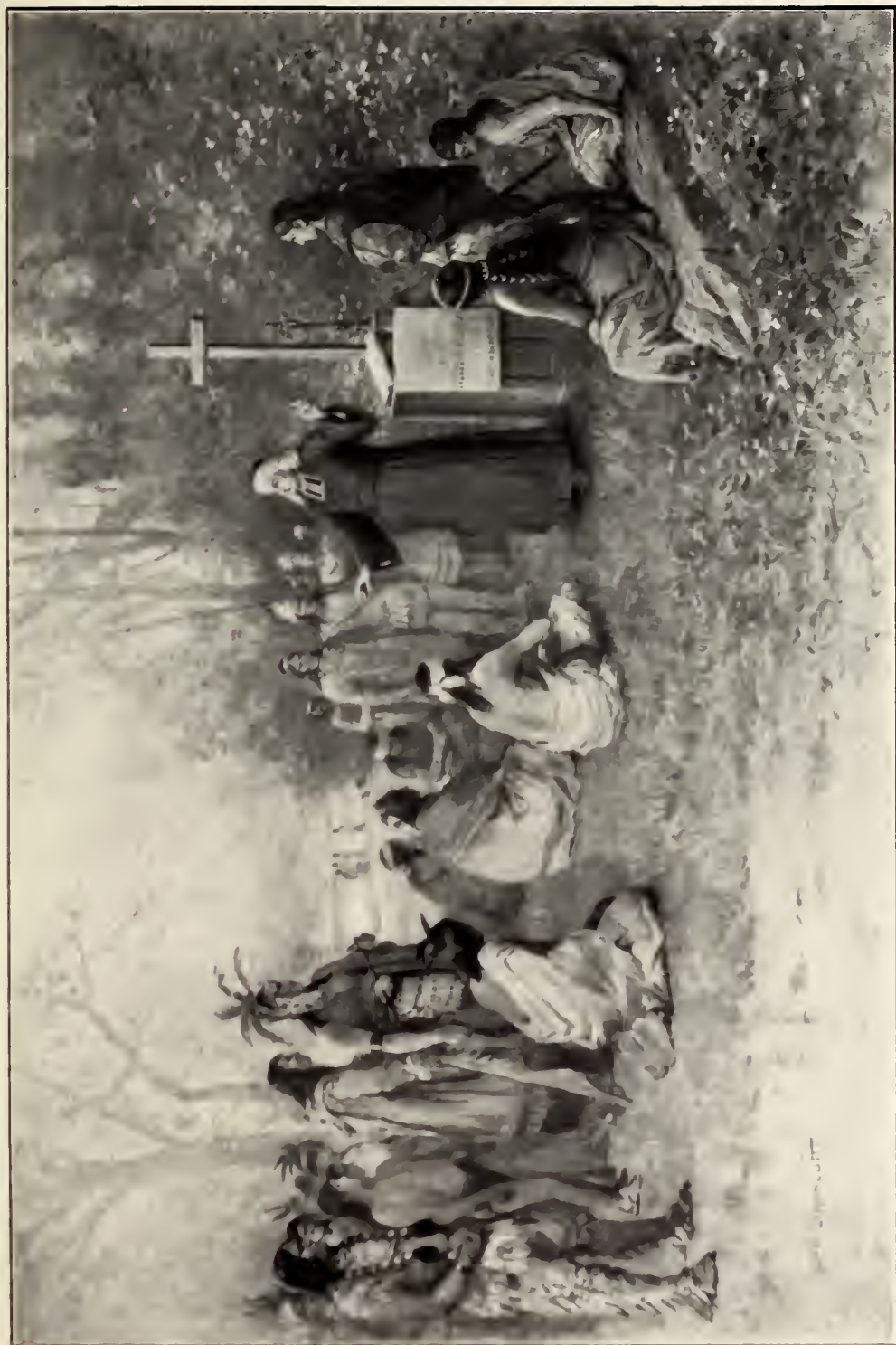
(Father Marquette Visits the Indians of the Mississippi)

From a painting by the American artist, Wm. H. Lippincott

BEING barred from eastern America by the Iroquois, the French explorers penetrated westward by the St. Lawrence River and so reached the heart of the continent, the upper Mississippi valley. Their explorations were carried on chiefly by Jesuit missionaries, men whose high courage and utter sacrifice of self has rarely been equalled. These missionaries ventured unprotected through the wilderness to preach their faith. Many of them were tortured and slain by the Indians; but gradually their patient endurance so impressed the savages that a Jesuit could go anywhere among them. Christian missions sprang up, and many of the natives turned to a milder, gentler style of living.

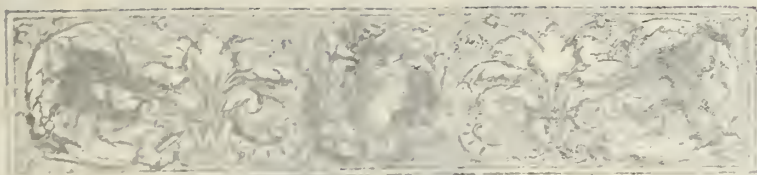
Notable among these missionaries was Father Marquette, who was the first to reach the Mississippi River or at least the first to make record of its discovery. The Indians told him of this "Father of waters" which flowed southward; and with a trader named Joliet he penetrated the Wisconsin woods until they reached the stream in (1673). Then they sailed southward on its waters in a canoe for a thousand miles, preaching to the Indians and trading with them. The trader Joliet represents the other type of French explorer of the time, the business-like seeker for furs who when he could hope for profit, would venture forth as boldly as the missionary.





Courtesy of Jones Bros. Pub. Co.

IN 6 From History of our Country



EARLY COLONIAL LEADERS

The Court of Appeals, the Second Circuit, and the Supreme Court have all held that the First Amendment does not require the government to fund the arts.





EARLY COLONIAL LEADERS

(The Chief Among the Men Who Established England's American Colonies)

Prepared especially for the present work

THE type of man who made the English colonies is here well depicted. These early leaders were stern, hard-featured men, strong and obstinate of purpose. John Smith had saved Virginia, the first colony. Lord Baltimore planted Maryland, the Catholic colony. Oglethorpe was an English general who led a company of English poor to settle Georgia, the last and most southerly of our original thirteen States. From the Middle States came Peter Stuyvesant, that strongest and most stubborn of old Dutch New Yorkers; and William Penn, the rich young Quaker who knew equally how to pick his way amid courts and amid savages.

The elder and the younger Winthrop were the early leaders of Massachusetts, the father being a wealthy English Puritan who led a small army of his dependents to the founding of Boston. So strong did this Puritan colony become that when civil war broke out in England between the Puritans and the king, many Massachusetts men hurried back to England to aid their co-religionists. Foremost of the eager fighters who thus returned was Sir Harry Vane. But the Puritan cause failed in England; and the king's party, once more in power, sent men of another stamp across the Atlantic, royal governors appointed for the deliberate purpose of subduing the colonies and taking away their liberty. Most prominent of these governors was Sir Edmund Andros, whose portrait forms so sharp a contrast to the others.





IN 7

The Younger Winthrop
The Elder Winthrop
William Penn

Sir Edmund Andros
John Smith
Lord Baltimore

Governor Oglethorpe
Peter Stuyvesant
Sir Harry Vane



THE FILL OF THE VACUANS

and English Council on Academics



THE EXILE OF THE ACADIANS

(The English Colonists Expel the French From Acadia)

From a painting by the American artist, W. P. Snyder

WHEN, toward the close of the sixteen hundreds, Louis XIV of France began fighting against England, this warfare seemed to the Europeans ample reason why their colonists in America should fight also. Hence the French in Canada and the English in New England and New York became involved in quarrels in which they had no real interest. But the resulting deeds of blood on either side soon roused them to a mutual hatred, bitter and lasting.

One of the most pathetic of the tragedies resulting from this antagonism is here depicted and has been made by our poet Longfellow the theme of his "Evangeline." The district of Acadia in Nova Scotia was ceded by France to England after one of their wars. Despite the change of sovereignty the inhabitants of Acadia remained French in race and sympathy. Another war arose, and the English colonists, fearing the Acadians would attack them, resolved to protect themselves by expelling the Acadians from their homes and scattering them in small parties through the English colonies. This was done suddenly and hurriedly, so as to prevent resistance. A party of troops from Massachusetts, the chief northern colony, descended upon the unprepared Acadians, herded them into ships, and carried them away. In the haste and confusion families were some of them separated, their members being taken on board different ships and transported to different colonies. Some of these never succeeded in finding one another again.







WASHINGTON'S FIRST SERVICE

(He successfully Crosses the Wilderness With Dispatches to the French)

From a painting by the American artist, Alonzo Chappell

BY the middle of the eighteenth century the ill-feeling between the French and the English colonists had grown so intense that they started a war on their own part. Thus this last and greatest war between France and England in America was not, as the earlier ones had been, a mere echo of some European turmoil. It was distinctly an American war; and the two parties continued fighting for some years before the contest spread to Europe.

The strife arose in the Ohio valley. The French had first explored this region; but the colony of Virginia claimed the land as its own. Hence when the French began building forts there, the Virginia governor sent them an order to stop. The first messenger found the journey over the Appalacian Mountain range so long and difficult and dangerous from Indians, that he abandoned it. Learning of this, George Washington, a resolute youth of twenty-two and one of the best athletes in the country, undertook the trying journey. His successful accomplishment of it made him a marked man in Virginia.

Washington was sent back over the same region with a military force; and when the French attacked this, he ambushed and defeated them. He thus began the great struggle known as the French and Indian War.







BRADDOCK'S BATTLE

THE BATTLE OF BRADDOCK, SEPTEMBER 8, 1755.

BRADDOCK'S BATTLE, SEPTEMBER 8, 1755, was a decisive victory for the British over the French and their Indian allies. The British, led by General Braddock, were attempting to capture Fort Duquesne, a strategic French stronghold on the Ohio River. The French, led by General Montcalm, and their Indian allies, including the Seneca, Shawnee, and Delaware, fought a fierce battle that resulted in the death of General Braddock and the capture of his army. The battle was a turning point in the Seven Years' War, as it allowed the French to maintain their control of the Ohio River and the surrounding territory. The British, on the other hand, were forced to retreat and eventually abandoned their plans to capture Fort Duquesne. The battle also had significant implications for the future of the American colonies, as it demonstrated the strength of the French and their Indian allies, and the need for the British to strengthen their military and political ties with the colonies.





BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT

(Fall of General Braddock During the Defeat of His Army)

From a drawing by the French artist, H. P. Philippoteaux

DURING this French and Indian War, the earlier victories were almost all on the side of the French. They were long experienced in marching and fighting in the wilderness; and moreover they had made friends with the Indians, who now joined them against the English settlers. England on the other hand persisted in sending to America generals wholly unaccustomed to savage warfare. These rather pompous and obstinate leaders refused to be guided by the colonists in military matters, and so plunged the English armies into disaster after disaster.

The most noted of these costly blunders was the defeat of General Braddock. He and his English officers looked upon Washington and his Virginians with scorn. They determined to show the colonists how real soldiers fought; so they persisted in marching their army through the wilderness just as though they were on parade. They did not search the country in advance by scouting parties, because they declared the Indians would never dare attack them. Thus they plunged blindly into an ambushade. Unseen enemies poured a deadly rain of bullets on them from every side. They charged desperately in different directions, but could find no foe to meet them in open fight. Braddock was mortally wounded and his army was completely defeated. Only a remnant of it was saved by Washington and his despised Virginians.







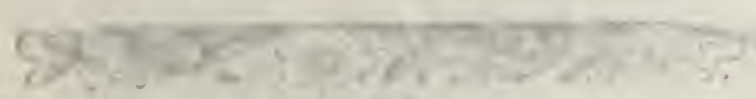
THE PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT

OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

BY JAMES M. COBB, ESQ., OF THE STATE OF GEORGIA.

A
Treatise on the Principles of Government, as they relate to the Rights and Duties of the People, and the Powers and Obligations of the Government. In which the Principles of Liberty and Justice are explained, and the Rights of the People are defined. The Principles of the Constitution are also explained, and the Powers of the Government are defined. The Rights of the People are defined, and the Duties of the Government are explained. The Principles of Liberty and Justice are explained, and the Rights of the People are defined. The Principles of the Constitution are also explained, and the Powers of the Government are defined. The Rights of the People are defined, and the Duties of the Government are explained.

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THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

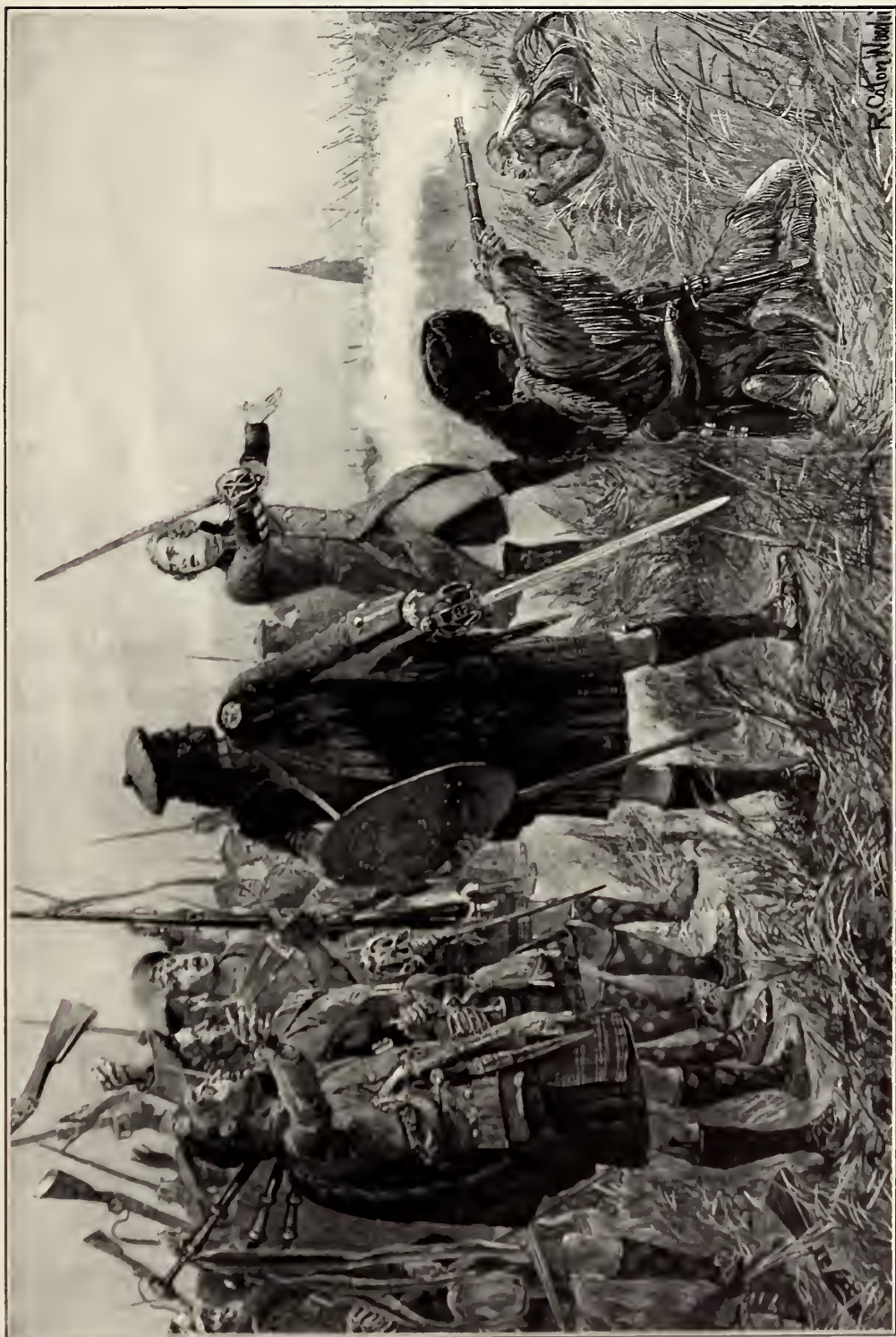
(The Charge of the Highlanders Which Won the Battle)

From a painting of 1889 by the English artist, R. C. Woodville

AFTER the French and Indian war had drifted on for some years in undecisive fashion, the French being too few to conquer the English colonies, and the English too poorly handled to win any victories, there came a change. In England the great prime-minister, William Pitt, came into power. He at once reorganized Britain's army, and entrusted much of the direction of American affairs to the colonials. Thus Washington was enabled to lead a practical Virginian expedition into the disputed Ohio valley, which he conquered for England. At the same time a powerful Massachusetts expedition captured the Canadian coast lands; and a British expedition under General Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence to the attack of Quebec.

This strongly fortified city, perched high upon its natural rampart of cliffs, was regarded as being unconquerable. It was the chief bulwark of the French power in America. After months of vain attack, Wolfe set his men to make a careful search of the cliffs beneath the city, and found a way of climbing to the summit and getting behind the fortifications. This the troops accomplished secretly by night. A Highland regiment led the advance; and morning revealed the long line of Highlanders to the astonished French. The defenders of the city rushed forth, hoping to drive their assailants back over the cliff before the entire army could ascend; but the charge of the Highlanders held back the French and so conquered Canada.





R. O'Connell



DEATH OF WOLFE

(The French and English Leaders Both Fall in the Battle of Quebec)

From a painting by the English artist, N. Dupray

THE battle of Quebec, which decided the fate of Canada, furnished also a celebrated dramatic scene to history.

The commanders of both sides died in the last moments of the battle. Wolfe, the English general, was scarcely more than a youth; but he had already achieved high fame. Struck down by three musket wounds while leading his Highlanders in their decisive charge, he lay listening eagerly while his aides brought him news of the remainder of the battle. At length they were able to tell him that the enemy were in flight. "Then," said Wolfe, sinking back in death, "I die content."

His adversary, General Montcalm, received his death wound at the same moment. He had been the chief figure of the brilliant defensive warfare by which the Canadians had so long held their foes at bay. With scarcely any help from the indolent and indifferent French court, Montcalm had conducted his American campaigns so ably that his Indian allies believed him to be invincible. He was shot through the body while striving to rally his fleeing troops at Quebec. When told he could not possibly live through the day, he said, "So much the better. I shall not have to see the surrender of Quebec."

That surrender followed on the next day. A year later the last remnant of the French army capitulated at Montreal, and Canada became what it has ever since remained, a British colony.





L. Dupuy



OGLETHORPE AMONG HIS HIGHLAND COLONISTS

Chapter VIII

THE LATER COLONIES

[*Authorities:* Sanborn, "New Hampshire"; Arnold, "Rhode Island"; Johnston, "Connecticut"; Raum, "New Jersey"; Sewell, "History of the Quakers"; Egle, "Pennsylvania"; Scharf, "Delaware," "Maryland"; Browne, "Maryland"; Moore, "North Carolina"; MacCrary, "South Carolina"; Jones, "Georgia"; Baird, "Huguenot Emigration to America."]



F the other colonies which united to give our flag its original thirteen stars, we can speak but briefly. New Hampshire had a little fur-trading settlement at Rye, now Portsmouth, as early as 1622. Dover, the capital, was settled in 1628 by English Puritans. Exeter and other towns were planted by religious exiles from Massachusetts Bay.

In 1620 the whole territory of what is now New Hampshire had been granted by the Virginia Company to John Mason and Ferdinand Gorges. They made a settlement at Portsmouth in 1630, and claimed jurisdiction over the little towns previously established. This caused almost endless trouble, and upon the death of Mason, who had become sole proprietor, his heirs showed no desire to assert a right to his unprofitable inheritance. The colonists were left to themselves. After considerable quarrelling with the Indians and with each other, several of the towns applied to Massachusetts Bay to extend over them her government and protection. This was done. The many and various religious views of the inhabitants were not interfered with, and they were ruled with marked discretion until 1679, when King Charles, to weaken Massachusetts, made New Hampshire into a separate royal province.

The settlers accepted perforce the undesired division, and the first assembly which was convened at Portsmouth sent word to Massachusetts: "We thankfully acknowledge your kindness while we dwelt under your shadow, owning ourselves deeply obliged that, on our earnest request, you took us under your government, and ruled us well. . . . We crave the benefit of your prayers on us, who are separated from our brethren."

About the same time Robert Mason and others, the heirs of John Mason, seeing that New Hampshire had now become a valuable property, reasserted their claims upon it. King Charles sided with them, and in 1682 sent out as governor of the province Edward Cranfield, who was in reality an agent or partner of Robert Mason. Under Cranfield's adroit management, the courts of New Hampshire declared Mason to be owner of most of the colony; but he could obtain neither rents nor estates from the defiant settlers. Neither could Governor Cranfield raise the taxes he arbitrarily imposed. At Exeter, his sheriff was driven off with clubs. Farmers' wives chased the officials with scalding water; and when Cranfield summoned the militia to suppress the rioting, not a soldier answered the call.

Cranfield withdrew to England in disgust, and New Hampshire was reunited to Massachusetts. The two were again separated, again united, and finally permanently divided in 1741. In 1749 the New Hampshire people purchased the rights of the Mason heirs, and so at last secured undisputed possession of their homes.

Rhode Island was settled by Roger Williams. This truly remarkable man was a Welsh minister who came to America in 1631. At first he was very welcome in Massachusetts Bay, and in 1633 was made pastor of the Salem church. His doctrines, however, soon proved unacceptable to the ministers who ruled the colony. He declared that the church and state should be separate, and men should be allowed to believe as their consciences dictated, without interference of law. He was, in fact, one of the first apostles of religious toleration, a mind a century or more in advance of even the earnest and thoughtful Puritans.

Another awkward announcement by Williams was that neither the King nor the Virginia Company, nor any other English power, had the right to grant lands in America; that the only way the settlers could honestly acquire them was by purchase from the original owners, the Indians.

One of these uncomfortable doctrines would have destroyed the power of the ministerial theocracy; the other would have placed every white land-owner at the mercy of sharp tricksters who could sway the Indians. As Williams refused to be silenced, he was banished. To escape being sent by force to England, he fled into the wilderness in the dead of winter. The Indians knew

him as a friend, for he had already preached among them. They protected the almost perishing man, and led him to Massasoit, who gladly welcomed him.

In the following spring Williams, with five followers, penetrated southward into the land of the Narragansetts, preached among them, and formed a little settlement, which in gratitude to God for his preservation, he named Providence. Following his announced doctrines, Williams purchased the land of his settlement from the Narragansetts, and allowed religious freedom within its limits. Naturally Providence became the refuge for all whom the stern bigotry of Massachusetts sought to persecute. Anne Hutchinson, a beautiful, eloquent, and energetic woman, whose religious doctrines for a time found great favor in Boston, was banished in 1637; and with Williams's help she and her followers founded Rhode Island's second settlement at Newport. Later Williams secured a charter from England, allowing these and other little settlements in their neighborhood to form a single colony, making whatever laws they saw fit.

With this liberal permission, with Williams as its guide, and with the continued friendship of its Indian benefactors, the colony prospered steadily, though its fanatic immigrants sometimes caused serious religious tumult, and the other New England settlements long looked on Rhode Island as a gathering of anarchistic rebels, men utterly devoid of all true religion. It was excluded from the league of the "United Colonies of New England" and it took little part even in King Philip's War, though Providence was burned during one of the Indian raids. The charter which Charles II. conferred on the little colony in 1662, was so liberal that it remained the law long after Rhode Island became a State in the American Union.

Connecticut, as we have seen, was also settled from Massachusetts Bay, though the Dutch early established a trading post on the Connecticut River near Hartford. In 1635, a considerable number of the Massachusetts settlers, dissatisfied with the narrow rule of the Puritan ministers, moved westward into the wilderness. They advanced in patriarchal fashion, going but a few miles a day, and driving their flocks and herds before them. Their principal leaders were the Reverend Thomas Hooker and John Winthrop, a son of Massachusetts' first governor, and one of the ablest men of the period. The wanderers settled in the towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield in Connecticut.

The three towns soon united to form a commonwealth of their own. Massachusetts acknowledged its independence; and under Winthrop's wise leadership the colony became the second greatest in New England in population, wealth, and general culture and prosperity.

In the opposition to England, Connecticut was neither so stubborn as Massachusetts, nor so submissive as Rhode Island. Nevertheless, she was

most anxious to retain the charter which Winthrop had secured for her, and when in 1686 Andros was appointed governor of all New England, Connecticut made futile resistance. Andros appeared at Hartford in 1687, to demand the treasured charter. Legend says that the Connecticut officials pleaded with him through a long, dreary October afternoon. Lights had to be brought in, to where the charter lay upon the table among the disputants. Suddenly the lights were extinguished; and when they were relit, the charter had disappeared. According to the story, the precious document had been carried off by its friends and hidden in the hollow of a neighboring oak-tree. This "Charter Oak" was long carefully preserved in Hartford, until its destruction during a great storm in 1856. But any opposition which Andros encountered, was certainly of the briefest, and he ruled the colony unopposed, until Massachusetts shipped him back a prisoner to England.

Turning farther southward, we find New Jersey a part of New Netherland or New York until 1664, when it was given as a separate colony to Lords Berkeley and Carteret, receiving its name from the Island of Jersey in the English Channel, of which Carteret had been governor.

The proprietors granted much of the land to a company of Quakers, and later the colony was divided into West Jersey, the home of the Quakers, and East Jersey, whose population was a mingling of Dutch, Germans, Swedes, New Englanders, Scotch, and English, the last being most numerous. The two sections were reunited in 1702. The colony was vaguely attached to New York until 1738, when the final separation took place and it received a royal governor of its own.

The existence of Delaware as a separate State was almost an accident. This little strip along the southern coast of Delaware Bay was within the district claimed by New Netherland. Both the Dutch and the English made unsuccessful attempts to settle it, but it was first permanently colonized by the Swedes. The greatest of Swedish kings, Gustavus Adolphus, he who wellnigh conquered Germany, laid broad plans for a new Sweden beyond seas.

His death checked these schemes, but in 1638 his successors, carrying out his idea, despatched a colony to Delaware, where they built Fort Christina on the present site of Wilmington. The Dutch fumed, but dared not quarrel with Sweden, until the European power of the latter began to fade. Then Peter Stuyvesant marched an army of several hundred men against prosperous little New Sweden and secured complete possession of it without a blow (1656).

When New Netherland passed to England in 1664, both Jersey and the more southern colony of Maryland claimed the Delaware strip. Its ownership being so doubtful, it slipped through the fingers of both claimants, and was sold to William Penn, thus becoming a part of his Quaker colony of Pennsylvania. Its

people were always dissatisfied with Quaker rule, and their turbulence caused Penn such annoyance that in 1702 he finally agreed to their becoming a separate province, though still under his ownership. His heirs continued as its proprietors until the Revolution, always appointing for it the same governor as for Pennsylvania.

Pennsylvania itself was not regularly colonized until 1681, though there were earlier settlers within its limits from both Delaware and Jersey. Then the celebrated William Penn, a man of wealth and prominence in England, determined to devote his life to the establishment of a colony. He was the son of Admiral Penn, one of Britain's naval heroes. On his father's death, the son inherited a large fortune, including a debt of some hundred thousand dollars owed him by King Charles II. Young Penn had previously joined the Quakers, a religious sect much persecuted at the time in both England and America.

Every one marvelled that a young man of his rank and wealth should attach himself to the despised sect, but Penn clung loyally to his faith. He was twice imprisoned for it. Still his sufferings did not begin to approach those of his poorer brethren, and it was for their sake that Penn suggested to the King to cancel his heavy indebtedness by the gift of a province. King Charles gladly consented. The first inland colony was carved out of what had been New York, and the land west of the Delaware River was transferred to Penn. He wished to name his province Sylvania (the Woodlands), but the King in jesting mood insisted that it should be Penn's Sylvania; and though it is said Penn tried to bribe the government officials to omit his name, they dared not disobey the King, and Pennsylvania it became.

The new proprietor promised complete liberty of conscience in his colony, and offered such generous terms to settlers, especially to those of his own faith, that Quakers flocked to Pennsylvania from the first. One of the chief doctrines of their faith was that of non-resistance; they would endure anything rather than fight. Hence it became absolutely necessary for them to secure the friendship of the Indians.

The work did not prove difficult when wisely undertaken. Penn came over to the colony in person, and held a celebrated interview with the Indians at Shackamaxon within the present bounds of Philadelphia. He purchased their land on fair terms, and made so equitable a treaty that they always spoke of him as their great and good friend. Pennsylvania had less trouble with the Indians than any other colony, though from its inland situation it was the most exposed of all.

The thrifty and thoughtful Quakers proved the very best of material for colony making, and Pennsylvania soon became one of the most prosperous and

populous of the settlements. Though founded over half a century later than New York, it soon outstripped the older colony in numbers and in wealth. Its city of Philadelphia became the largest in America, and remained so until after the Revolution.

South of the Quaker colony lay Maryland. This was settled as far back as 1631 by traders from Virginia. It was part of the Virginian territory until King Charles I. divided it and made a separate grant of the northern region to his Catholic friend, Lord Baltimore. It was intended that Maryland should become a refuge for the persecuted English Catholics.

Thus we find yet another religion impelling its sturdiest and most resolute members to seek the free air of America. Is it any wonder that the descendants of these men fought for freedom; any wonder that our land is to-day, and has always been, deeply and earnestly religious?

A well-prepared expedition came out to Maryland in 1634 under Leonard Calvert, a brother of Lord Baltimore. He took possession of the land with solemn religious ceremonies, and built the town of St. Mary. Perhaps we might better say he bought the town from the Indians; for an Indian village was already standing on its site. Calvert purchased the land from its inhabitants, and made so friendly an agreement with them that for months his people lived side by side with the redmen in their wigwams. Then the Indians faithfully completed the terms of the odd bargain, by moving out and leaving their homes to the newcomers.

What shall we say of the black heart of the man who, for personal reasons, destroyed this happy amity? William Clayborne was the leader of the Virginia traders who had previously occupied Maryland. After one brief battle in Chesapeake Bay between his ship and those of Calvert, Clayborne despaired of opposing the powerful colony by force, but he made all the trouble possible. One thing he did, was to tell the Indians that the newcomers held the same religion as the Spaniards, that like them they were kidnappers, and were waiting only for a chance to seize and massacre the trusting redmen. The frightened savages fled, and thereafter Maryland had the same trouble with them as did Virginia.

Lord Baltimore did not declare his colony to be solely for Catholics. That would have been like a challenge to invite enmity, and would have made Maryland the target of every Protestant attack upon his faith. He adopted the larger plan of promising religious toleration to all Christians. Under this regulation, Protestants of various sects joined the Catholic settlement, and Governor Calvert made them welcome. For years the people of these two antagonistic faiths lived amicably together on equal terms, a thing almost unheard of in those days of fanaticism. In 1649 the Maryland Legislature even

passed a toleration act confirming the religious liberty already enjoyed. This was the first formal law of its kind in the world.

Unfortunately the law marked, not the confirmation of the great principle of toleration, but the fact that it was in danger of being lost. The Protestants were increasing in numbers and beginning to struggle for supremacy. Clayborne, the colony's old enemy, had returned and taken an active part in fanning the spark into flame. Governor Calvert was compelled to flee from the colony in 1647, and there was a regular civil war with little battles and campaigns.

Calvert was successful in the end, and ruled peacefully till his death; but the dispute survived both him and his successor. In 1689 the Protestants, aided by Virginia, overthrew their rivals. The English Government abolished the Baltimore proprietorship, and the capital was removed from St. Mary to the Protestant town of Annapolis (1694). Catholics were severely persecuted, and the prosperity of the colony suffered, until 1715, when Lord Baltimore's descendants were restored to their rights. These proprietors were proud of the rich domain their ancestor had founded. Under their guidance persecution ceased. Maryland became again a thriving State, and continued so throughout the colonial period.

The extreme southern colonies were less important. North Carolina was settled from Virginia, whose hunters and traders began exploring the region at an early date. The first permanent town was planted in 1653 at Albemarle near the mouth of the Roanoke River, not far from the Virginia border.

Charles II., paying little attention to the earlier settlers, granted the whole of the Carolinas to some of his favorite courtiers in 1663. But the people who had cleared away the wilderness at Albemarle and elsewhere, had no intention of submitting to this new authority, if they could help it. There was constant bickering between them and the proprietors, and the latter, finding a more profitable domain in the southern part of their grant, paid scant heed to these rude woodmen in the north. Lumbering was the main industry among them, towns were few and scattered, insolvent debtors from the other colonies found refuge with worse criminals amid their forests, the navigation laws were evaded by much smuggling, and altogether the North Carolinians developed into a wild and lawless race, hardy fighters, but of a distinctly lower tone than their neighbors in both morals and education.

South Carolina received its first permanent settlement from the West Indian island of Barbadoes, whence a band of several hundred English colonists re-emigrated in 1663 under Sir John Yeamans, and settled along the Cape Fear River. This district, though now included in North Carolina, was long re-

garded as part of the more southern province, and some of the plantations of Yeamans's followers extended far south of Cape Fear.

Then, in 1670, the Charleston district was settled by emigrants sent out from England by the Carolina proprietors. These gentlemen took a great interest in their own special settlement, kept it well supplied with everything needful, and had the celebrated philosopher, John Locke, draft for its government an ideal constitution, called the "Grand Model."

The Grand Model was never put in operation. In fact, it was so absurdly grand and elaborate that the colonists made a jest of it. Still the colony prospered. In 1679, French Huguenots, driven from France by Louis XIV., began to arrive on its shores in such numbers that they gave a distinctly French tone to the province. It soon became the most important of the more southern colonies, had a little war with the Spaniards at St. Augustine, and defended its more feeble neighbors against a formidable Indian outbreak of the Tuscaroras in 1711. The Tuscaroras, completely defeated by the Carolina troops, abandoned their villages and fled northward to New York, where they united with the formidable Iroquois, or "League of the Five Nations," thereafter known as the "Six Nations."

Again, in 1715, a widespread confederacy among the southern Indians threatened South Carolina. Massacre burst upon the settlers. The scattered people fled to Charleston in terror, and Governor Craven, arming every man of the confused mob, marched out against the Indians with over a thousand followers. The redskins were completely defeated, and were pursued till they took refuge among the Spaniards in St. Augustine.

Georgia, most southern of all the colonies, was the last one founded. Its location in the disputed borderland between the English domain and Florida, prevented its use for actual settlement until there was no coast line remaining elsewhere. Both in its foundation and its settlers it differed sharply from the other twelve provinces. It was started as a philanthropic enterprise. General Oglethorpe, one of the noblest of Englishmen, planned it as a refuge for unfortunate debtors, whom the English laws of the period confined in the most cruel imprisonment. In a sudden outburst of charity, all England united in saving these wretched sufferers and giving them another chance to prosper in far-off Georgia, so named in honor of King George. Oglethorpe accepted a grant of the land "in trust for the poor," and himself led the rescued debtors to the new world. They settled at Savannah in 1733.

The constitution given them was liberal, the English Government repeatedly supplied them with lavish assistance, their leader was almost a genius, yet the colony did not thrive. Men who had failed once in life were not of the calibre to conquer the American wilderness, and these Georgians showed in

pitiable contrast to the more northern settlers. One of their laws forbade the selling of rum, and they were determined to have it both for themselves and for the Indians. Another prohibited the use of slaves, and the settlers insisted that in the warm climate negro slaves were a necessity. Oglethorpe had constant trouble; for, added to the menacing tone of his followers, was the ever-increasing danger from the Spaniards. Finally the governor imported a whole regiment of Scotch Highlanders, and these made him master of the situation. Many of the undesirable debtors fled to other colonies.

The Indians became Oglethorpe's devoted friends, and joined him in a war against Florida, which lasted from 1739 to 1742. As many as five thousand Spanish troops were despatched from Cuba to Florida. Oglethorpe received but slight help from the other colonies, and at one time it seemed as if his little forces were doomed to destruction. But his military strategy saved his colony, and a peace between England and Spain finally made its boundaries secure.

Georgia's great and noble benefactor returned to England the next year (1743), and left the province to govern itself, which it did in very feeble and inefficient fashion. The crown took possession of it a few years later, and conditions began slowly to improve. The unsatisfactory story of Georgia is ever quoted as a most striking proof that the success of a colony depends, not upon the high motives and lavish expenditures of its projectors, but upon the strength, the energy, and the moral character of its actual inhabitants.



PENN'S MANSION IN PHILADELPHIA

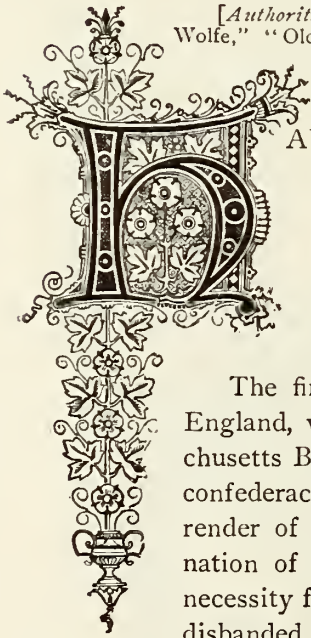


INDIANS PREPARING FOR A RAID ON THE COLONISTS

Chapter IX

THE FRENCH POWER IN AMERICA

[*Authorities:* Parkman, "La Salle," "Count Frontenac," "Montcalm and Wolfe," "Old Regime in Canada," etc.; Roosevelt, "Winning of the West"; Shea, "Discovery and Exploration in the Mississippi Valley"; Warburton, "Conquest of Canada."]



HAVING followed the thirteen colonies through their period of separate development, let us now note the growth of that spirit of union which gradually drew them together and has made of them a single nation. Individually, they were infants; united, they successfully resisted England's greatest efforts, and have become the mighty country so worthy of our love.

The first thought of union rose, as we have seen, in New England, where, as early as 1642, the four colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, formed a confederacy against the Indians and the Dutch. With the surrender of New Amsterdam in 1664, and the practical extermination of the New England Indians in King Philip's War, the necessity for this confederacy disappeared, and it soon afterward disbanded.

The next attempt at the consolidation of the colonies came from England herself. King James II. seems to have hoped to crush their spirits by ending their separate existence, and his governor, Sir Edmund Andros, was given complete authority over all the land from Maine to Delaware Bay. But the fall of King James dragged down his scheme as well, and the colonies returned instantly to their separate existences.

The real impulse toward American union was of later date. It sprang from the wars with the French in Canada. Against these powerful enemies, the various colonies first felt the advantage and even the necessity of mutual assistance. The early struggle with nature and with the Indians had made the Americans strong and self-reliant. Now the struggle with France taught them to agree among themselves and to stand together.

Let us look back for a moment and follow the steady southward progress of the French power. You will recall that Champlain had settled Quebec in 1608, but by attacking the Iroquois he had made that powerful confederacy bitter enemies of himself and his successors. Being thus debarred from advancing south through New York, the French followed the great lakes westward. Their explorers were of two types—Jesuit missionaries who braved death in every agonizing form to spread their faith among the redmen, and trappers and traders who displayed a daring almost equally great in the search for furs. As a rule, the affable Frenchmen made friends of the Indians far more readily than did the arrogant English. The Jesuits became the trusted counsellors of the redmen, and gradually the mission settlements extended far into the unknown West.

From the Indians, the French learned of the great Mississippi River which flowed southward beyond the lakes, and in 1673 Father Marquette, accompanied by the trader Joliet, penetrated to its upper waters in Wisconsin and floated nearly a thousand miles down its mighty current, seeing lands which no white man had trodden since De Soto's ill-fated expedition more than a century before. Marquette, warned by friendly Indians of dangers farther down the river, finally headed north again and brought back to Quebec the news of his discovery.

La Salle, a French gentleman, was fired with the idea of taking formal possession of this wonderful stream for his country; and, after conquering a thousand dangers, he led an expedition from Lake Michigan up the Chicago River and thence down the Mississippi to its mouth. He landed here and there along its banks to unfurl his flag and to proclaim his country's sovereignty over the new land. In honor of his King, Louis XIV., he named the territory Louisiana.

Of course the Spaniards claimed the Mississippi's mouth, but La Salle was resolute to oppose them. Returning to France, he organized a powerful fleet, and led it boldly through the Spanish Islands into the Gulf of Mexico to plant a settlement in Louisiana. A treacherous follower assassinated him and the colony failed, but France remained mistress of the Mississippi.

In 1689 Louis XIV. became embroiled in a European war with William III. of England; and the fact seemed to the two potentates ample reason why

there should be war between Canada and the British provinces. Louis reappointed an able general, Count Frontenac, to be for the second time governor of Canada, and gave him orders to crush the opposition of the Iroquois, destroy them if need be, and then push on to the conquest of New York.

The Iroquois, however, without waiting for Frontenac's coming, had already taken up the hatchet against the French and raided their settlements, even to within sight of Montreal. Where one of its prominent suburbs now stands, they roasted and, according to tradition, devoured their captives in full sight of their enemies. Frontenac, good soldier as he was, found it required all his strength to drive back the Iroquois; and his operations against New York were reduced to one savage raid upon the extreme northern settlement of Schenectady, most of whose inhabitants were massacred in cold blood by the French and their Indian allies. At the same time, Frontenac roused the Canadian savages against New England. They stole southward through the forests, and raids and massacres, such as had been unknown since King Philip's War, once more scourged the frontiers of Maine and New Hampshire, and reached even to Massachusetts.

It was this suddenly aggressive attitude of Canada that turned the thoughts of the British colonists toward union. Jacob Leisler was at the moment governing New York, and to him apparently belongs the honor of bringing about a meeting of delegates from the various colonies, the first Continental Congress. It met at New York in 1690, to concert plans for mutual safety and defence. A naval expedition was despatched against Quebec under Sir William Phips of Maine, while a land force under Fitz-John Winthrop of Connecticut marched against Montreal. Frontenac easily repulsed both of these amateur commanders, and the Indian raids continued.

In 1694 more than a hundred people were massacred at Durham in New Hampshire, many of them being tortured and burned to death. In 1697 Haverhill, Massachusetts, was attacked, Mrs. Dustin's well-known adventure being one of the incidents of the assault. Mrs. Dustin was carried off a captive by the Indians, but learning that they meant to torture her, she managed to free herself in the night, and, with the aid of another woman captive and a boy, she tomahawked all ten of the sleeping braves who guarded them. The fugitives then escaped down the Merrimac River in an Indian canoe and returned to Haverhill, carrying with them ten gory scalps as trophies of their experience.

A brief peace between England and France (1697) relieved the colonies from their terror for a couple of years; but then there came another European war, that of the "Spanish Succession." Once more France and England took opposite sides in the quarrel, and once more—so unhappily do world-parted events interweave—the Canadian Indians began ravaging New England.

Deerfield in Massachusetts was sacked and burned early in 1704, the red-men stealing over the winter wastes on snow-shoes, which enabled them to walk undiscovered at night up the drifted snow-banks and over the palisading which was meant to protect the town. More than a hundred of the inhabitants were carried off as prisoners; but, contrary to the usual custom, their friends were afterward allowed to ransom them. One young girl was adopted by the red-men and retained among them. Years later she visited Deerfield as an Indian squaw, the mother of several children. Her relatives entreated her to remain with them, but she had grown unused to civilization, and, refusing all persuasion, returned to her Indian home and husband. Another bloody massacre occurred at Haverhill in 1708.

On their part, the colonists of New England, New York, and New Jersey united in an expedition which accompanied a British fleet, and took possession of Nova Scotia (1710). The following year a similar but much more formidable force under the British admiral Walker attempted the capture of Quebec. The expedition was badly handled, provisions ran out, the land forces became bewildered amid the forests, several ships were wrecked on the St. Lawrence, and nearly a thousand men drowned. The survivors were thankful to return alive. Peace between France and England was made in 1713, and Nova Scotia was allowed to remain in English hands. This was the first proof given to the Canadian Indians of the weakness of their French protectors.

A deadly hatred had been bred between the Canadian and the British colonists, and the third war of their mother countries found them eager to fly at each other's throats. This war, known as that of King George, did not break out until 1744, by which time the British colonies had grown far stronger than their northern neighbor. The colonists began operations by an expedition against Louisburg, the great fortress of eastern Canada, situated on Cape Breton Island. Louis XIV. had spent many million dollars in erecting this celebrated structure, which he boasted that no earthly power could conquer. It was of tremendous strength, was garrisoned by nearly two thousand men, and was considered impregnable.

Some idea of the temper of the New Englanders may be gathered from the fact that the first suggestion made by the governor of Massachusetts to his council was to despatch against this stronghold a force of only four hundred men, who were to carry it by sudden assault. Ultimately, however, the number of troops sent out by New England was about four thousand, most of them from Massachusetts. Four British men-of-war transported the colonists to Louisburg. The enterprise was looked upon almost as a religious crusade, prayer-meetings were held in all the churches, and from every household in New England went up petitions for success.

There were no generals in the colony, so the command was given to a popular merchant, William Pepperell. His followers knew as little as he about the regular tactics for besieging such a fortress as Louisburg; but their very ignorance brought them success. They pressed forward in a reckless headlong fashion that amazed and disheartened the French commander. A single company charged blindly against one of his strongest batteries, and those who were not killed were brought before him as prisoners. They united in greatly magnifying the number of the besiegers. The commandant's provisions were short, his garrison half mutinous, and at this opportune moment the British ships captured the only French supply vessel. In despair, the commander offered to surrender, and he was allowed to name his own terms by the astonished and delighted colonial officers (1745).

The news of the capture of Louisburg amazed everybody. The Massachusetts ministers regarded it as a direct answer to their prayers. England made William Pepperell a baronet, the first American to be so honored; and France, sorely humiliated, prepared an immense expedition in retaliation.

Forty strong ships of war left France in 1746, accompanied by troops and a fleet of transports intended to carry forty thousand Canadian and Indian auxiliaries. The Frenchmen meant to devastate the American coast from Maine to Georgia, and drive the colonists back into the wilderness. Luckily for America, several of the ships were wrecked on the outward voyage. Pestilence broke out among the crews and spread until its ravages left them helpless. The admiral in command died or committed suicide. His successor also took his own life in despair over the ruin of the expedition. And after all these calamities, when the desperate remnant of the fleet finally moved southward to the attack, a tempest again assailed and scattered them. Such as were not wrecked, returned singly to France. What wonder that New England once more believed herself specially favored by the protection of Heaven!

Peace between France and England was signed in 1748, and to the lasting resentment of the colonists, Louisburg, the gem of their great triumph, was restored to France, in exchange for Madras in India, a city and a land which to our ancestors were valueless. Their Canadian foes were revived against them, that England might reap the benefit elsewhere.

All three of these wars with Canada had their origin in Europe. Now came the fourth and greatest struggle with the French; and this rose from events in America itself. The results, too, were felt mainly on this continent, and decided forever that the land should be English and not French. This final contest is generally distinguished from the earlier ones by being known specially as the "French and Indian War."

The settlements of the two opposing powers were rapidly drawing nearer

together. Hitherto their forces had been compelled to go in search of each other, across many leagues of wilderness. But now the British colonists found their numbers so increased along the Atlantic coast line, that their frontier clearings reached back to the Appalachian Mountain range, and pioneers began to plant themselves in the fertile valleys beyond. This region, since its streams flowed into the Mississippi, was claimed by the French. They did not want it for settlement, but they did mean to preserve it for their country, for the Indians, and for the fur trade. As soon as they learned of the intrusions of the English, they planned to build a line of forts extending from Lake Erie southward to their far-off settlement of New Orleans, thus marking the frontier that they claimed.

The western limit of English territory was, of course, very uncertain. The original grants to several of the thirteen colonies had named the Pacific Ocean as their boundary toward the setting sun, but at that time nobody knew where the Pacific Ocean really lay; and kingly charters could certainly convey but a shadowy right over vast regions of whose existence they knew nothing. Still the colonists were very positive that their claims did not stop at the summit of the Appalachians. They had no intention of yielding to the grasping French, and so the conflict became inevitable.

News soon reached the colonies of the building of the first of the chain of French forts, one on Lake Erie at Presque Isle, now the city of Erie, and two others farther south along the Alleghany River. As Pennsylvania's charter distinctly limited her western boundary, while Virginia's conferred on her everything north and west, this district, though really on the Quaker frontier, was claimed by Virginia. Her governor, Dinwoodie, resolved to send the Frenchmen notice to withdraw (1753). The first messenger despatched through the wilderness on this delicate and somewhat dangerous mission, was baffled by the mere physical difficulties of the trip, and returned with his work unaccomplished. The task was then given to a more resolute man, a youth of one of the leading Virginia families, George Washington.

Washington, the great hero of our race, was at this time an athletic young man of twenty-one, over six feet tall, vigorous, self-reliant, and well-educated. He had already been through the Ohio wilderness as a surveyor, and he accomplished the governor's mission with promptitude and success, though its only result was, as might have been expected, the bringing back of a haughty answer from the French commander, followed by a hurrying forward of the work upon the forts.

On his route, Washington, with experienced eye, had picked out the most valuable site for a fort in all that region, the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers, where Pittsburg now stands, "the Gateway of the West."

He advised Governor Dinwoodie to fortify this point against the French, and workmen were despatched for the purpose in the early spring of 1754. Washington, young as he was, received a colonel's commission, and was sent as second in command of the troops that were enlisted and hurried after the workmen to protect them. His commander died upon the route, and thus Washington became the actual leader of the expedition.

Before he reached the fort the French had come down against it in heavy force, driven off the workmen, completed the buildings, and named the strong post Fort Du Quesne, after the Canadian governor. All parties now saw, as Washington had seen from the first, that Fort Du Quesne was the key to the entire Ohio valley.

The French had prepared an ambush for the advancing Virginians; but Washington, warned by a friendly Indian, turned the tables on the ambushers. With a file of picked men he crept stealthily to the rear of the waiting foes. When his followers were all in position, he himself gave the signal for attack by firing upon the enemy. Thus it was Washington who discharged the first shot in the French and Indian War.

Some of the entrapped enemy were slain, some taken prisoners, and Washington fell back with his troops to a hastily erected stockade, which he named Fort Necessity. He had only four hundred men in all, and a force of sixteen hundred French and Indians was despatched against him. His fort was gallantly assailed, but made such prolonged and determined resistance that the French commander finally offered to let the Americans go free, if they would surrender the post. Washington gladly agreed, and he and his little band marched out with colors flying (July 4, 1754), and returned to Virginia.

By this time every one in the colonies saw that war was inevitable, and men's thoughts turned once more to the great question of union. The English Government itself urged on the provinces the necessity for combined action; and in June of 1754 a congress of delegates met at Albany. It was intended that every colony should be represented, but the more southern ones did not as yet feel themselves sufficiently concerned to attend. The meeting was held at Albany, because the delegates hoped to include the Iroquois in their league against the French, and these Indians were in fact persuaded into a warlike alliance. This Albany Congress is generally regarded as the first definite step toward the American Union.

The most prominent man who attended it was Benjamin Franklin, of Philadelphia. He had already gained prominence as a statesman and a publisher. His "Poor Richard's Almanac" was known throughout the colonies. To his printed account of the French seizure of Fort Du Quesne, he had appended his now famous picture of a snake divided into parts representing the

different States, with the motto, "Unite or die." Franklin was now selected to draw up the plan for a colonial league.

It is interesting to note the representation which he assigned to each colony, as it roughly measures their relative importance. Massachusetts was to have seven delegates, Connecticut five, New Hampshire and Rhode Island each two; fifteen in all for New England. Pennsylvania had six, New York four, New Jersey three; that is, thirteen for the Middle States. Virginia was given seven, and Maryland and North and South Carolina each four, making seventeen for the South. Maine was at the time part of Massachusetts, Delaware was counted with Pennsylvania, and Georgia was still so insignificant that it was ignored.

The convention adopted Franklin's plan, which among other things placed the capital in his own city of Philadelphia. But every State Legislature to which the scheme was submitted, rejected it, as limiting their own power too much and increasing that of the King. On the other hand, the English Government refused the plan with equal promptness, on the ground that it gave too much power to the colonies. It is not difficult to see that serious possibilities for quarrel already underlay these opposing views of England and America.

For a time, however, the antagonism was forgotten in the necessities of the hour; and without any regular association, the colonies lent each other such assistance as they could. War had not yet been declared, but England sent General Braddock and a force of English soldiers to recover Fort Du Quesne. Braddock set out through the wilderness in 1755, Washington accompanying the expedition as a volunteer. The English general had a great contempt for the colonials, and for the French and Indians as well. He declared his foes would not dare attack him, and insisted on marching through the forests as if on parade, with drums beating and colors flying.

The result was that on July 8th he walked into an ambuscade. His men fell in heaps from the bullets of an enemy they could not see. The Britons stood their ground valiantly, and charged this way and that, at the foe that always melted from before them while continuing to fire from the rear. Braddock and most of his brightly dressed officers were shot down.

Only Washington and a few of his despised provincials knew what to do—and did it. At the first volley from the ambush, the Virginians threw themselves behind trees and answered shot for shot. Washington took command; he rode everywhere, encouraging, directing. His towering form made him a conspicuous figure, and the Indians marked him as a special victim. Yet he escaped unharmed. Two horses were shot under him, four bullets pierced his coat. One Indian chief declared afterward that he himself had fired at least twelve times at Washington, and at last sought an easier mark, convinced that

the tall Virginian was under the special protection of the Great Spirit. Shall we not thankfully believe the same?

Washington brought the shattered remnant of the Britons back to Virginia, an important task to be entrusted to a young man of only twenty-three! It involved a somewhat grim responsibility. He was receiving stern training for even greater labors in the future.

Two other events occurred in 1755 which certainly looked like war, though the French and English governments were still assuring each other of their pacific intentions and profound mutual esteem. You will recall that the French province of Nova Scotia had been ceded to England in 1713. Its inhabitants, at least those of Acadia, its western coast, were still thoroughly French at heart, and the New England colonists feared an attack from them in case of war. As a preventive measure, they resorted to the cruel device of expelling the Acadians from their homes. A strong force of Massachusetts soldiers landed from ships and made prisoners of the unsuspecting peasants. They were hurried on shipboard with such few belongings as they could snatch in haste, and were scattered in small bodies among the various British colonies. It is this event which Longfellow has made the theme of his beautiful poem "Evangeline."

Meanwhile, Sir William Johnson, the agent of the British Government to the Iroquois, a man who lived in the Indians' wigwams and had almost unbounded influence over them, undertook to drive the French from Lake Champlain. His force of thirty-five hundred men, partly Iroquois, partly colonists, met about a thousand French and six hundred Indians near Fort Edward on the banks of Lake George. The battle that followed was the most bloody and desperate that had yet been fought on American soil. The outnumbered French were almost all slain; their Indian allies fled. So severe, however, were Johnson's losses that he made no further advance. The French remained in possession of Lake Champlain and strengthened their two powerful fortresses there, Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

By this time it was impossible to maintain any longer the pretence of peace, and first England, then France, declared war early in 1756. The British Government persisted in misunderstanding the case it had to deal with. It sent over incompetent generals, who spent their time in parading their own importance, sneering at the colonial troops, and bullying the people whenever opportunity offered. Instead of accepting as their first duty the protection of the frontiers against the Indians, these generals were ambitious to achieve some great exploit, which should redound to their personal fame. Two years of disaster followed. Montcalm, one of France's ablest soldiers, was made governor of Canada, and he repulsed his vainglorious opponents at every point.

The colonies lost heavily in men and money. Their frontiers from Maine to Virginia were cruelly ravaged.

In 1758 the tide turned. The British colonists were at last fully roused. They outnumbered the Canadians more than a dozen to one, and had at first expected an easy victory. The contest had proved, however, more even than it promised. All the northern Indians except the Iroquois had made an alliance with the enemy; and even the Iroquois began to waver in their ancient allegiance, tempted to admiration by French daring and success. Moreover, the Frenchmen were all woodsmen, all fighters, while the Americans, except upon the extreme frontiers, had become a race of peaceful traders. They were unaccustomed to war, and most of them took little interest in it.

Now, however, they began to wake to its seriousness; and at the same time a political change of ministry placed William Pitt, one of England's ablest and most celebrated statesmen, in control of her policy. Pitt appealed to the patriotism of the colonies, recalled the worthless and offensive British generals, and sent energetic and competent men to prosecute the war.

General Amherst assumed the chief command, with Gen. James Wolfe as his first assistant. With a large force of British troops and provincials, they besieged the great fortress of Louisburg. It was better defended this time than when the Massachusetts militia had captured it thirteen years before, but now the investing army was several times as large as the former one, and had heavy siege guns, which slowly battered down the walls. The falling fortress had no choice but to surrender in the end, and its crumbling ruins marked the crumbling of French power in America.

At the same time, one of the incompetent Britons who still remained, led an overwhelming force against Fort Du Quesne in the West. Washington was once more a member of the expedition, and once more he saved it from disaster. The British general moved so slowly, fortifying every step as he advanced, that winter approached while he was still a long way from his goal. Thereon he cheerfully decided to return to the settlements till spring. Washington, who had argued and entreated all summer, now finally secured permission to push onward alone, with his own force of about a thousand Virginians. Furious over the long delay, these men sped forward on the wings of the wind; and the French, who had only laughed at the lumbering tactics of the British general, now saw that their time had come. Their garrison was scarce five hundred strong, and, setting fire to the fort, they fled to Canada. Washington was at last able to raise the standard of England over the much-disputed spot, and he named it Fort Pitt, in honor of the great statesman, whose abilities he recognized. The settlement that sprang up around the fort, has become the mighty city of Pittsburg.

The next year, 1759, the general-in-chief, Amherst, resolved to strike even heavier blows against Canada. The colonists, delighted to find a real leader at last, ably seconded him. They put fifty thousand men in the field, while Canada's whole population scarce exceeded eighty thousand. The forts on Lake Champlain were captured, and also those in western New York; but the crowning achievement of the year was Wolfe's celebrated capture of Quebec, the Gibraltar of America.

The great French leader Montcalm, slowly forced back by overwhelming numbers, had determined to make his last stand at Quebec. The strongly fortified city stood upon a cliff, the French troops were quite as numerous as Wolfe's, and the latter's expedition seemed hopeless from the start. He spent more than two months in fruitless assaults upon the city's stout defences. Then, exploring along the shore, he himself discovered a foot-path that scaled the precipitous heights behind the city. Secretly, by night, he led his men up the narrow way, and at dawn the Frenchmen saw his troops arrayed on the Plains of Abraham, as they were called, overlooking the city. "They have discovered our weak point," said Montcalm quietly; "we must fight them."

The battle was short and decisive, and the English won (September 13, 1759). Both generals charged at the head of their men, and both fell mortally wounded. "It is better so," said Montcalm, when informed that his end was near; "I shall not see the surrender of Quebec."

Wolfe was told that the enemy were beaten and everywhere in flight. "Now God be praised," he cried. "I die in peace."

The fall of Quebec, accompanied as it was by the death of Montcalm, was in effect the fall of Canada. Montreal, the only remaining stronghold, surrendered the next year to the overwhelming forces under Amherst.

Abroad, the war between England and France lasted until 1763, but there was no more fighting with Canada. The Indian allies of the French still held out under their able chieftain Pontiac. For a year or two they kept quiet, but in 1763 burst suddenly upon all the English forts throughout the West. The main struggle centred around Detroit, where Pontiac himself commanded. The garrison there were besieged for over five months, and were reduced to terrible straits. That and Fort Pitt were the only important posts that held out.

Finally, a French agent reached the Indians with notice that France had made peace with England, and that they could hope for no further aid from her. Most of the tribes then sought peace, though Pontiac and his immediate followers still refused it and fled into the far West. Pontiac ranks by the side of King Philip as one of the colonies' ablest and most dangerous foes.

The peace of 1763 gave to England all of France's enormous possessions

in America, east of the Mississippi. At the same time France transferred to her ally, Spain, all her claims to the region west of the great river. The degenerate Louis XV. thus surrendered an entire continent, which he had made no effort to save, for Montcalm received practically no assistance in his magnificent defence. Spain, on her part, ceded Florida to Great Britain, which thus became mistress of the entire Atlantic coast. No other treaty has ever transferred the ownership of so enormous a fraction of the surface of the earth.

"I have yielded it all," said the French minister bitterly, "on purpose to destroy the English nation. They have desired American dominion; I mean to give them more than enough of it." Did the sarcastic statesman really see into the future? It was the embarrassments resulting from the French and Indian War, that involved England in the struggle with the colonies.



DEATH OF MONTCALM

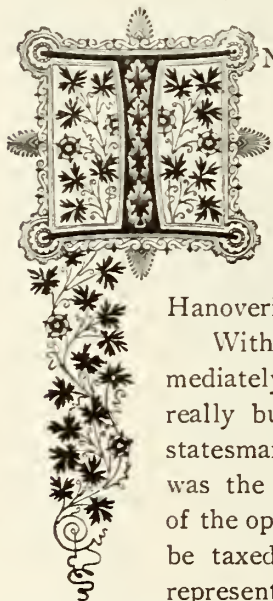


BUNKER HILL

Chapter X

THE REVOLUTION—TYRANNY OF KING GEORGE

[*Authorities*: Fiske, "American Revolution"; Frothingham, "Rise of the Republic"; Abbot, "Revolutionary Times"; Lecky, "England in the Eighteenth Century"; Governor Hutchinson's Diary and Letters; Burke's Speeches on America; Franklin's Autobiography; Sloane, "The French War and the Revolution"; Weeden, "Economic and Social History of New England"; Lodge, "Short History of the American Colonies."]



IN the year 1760, George III. became King of England. Though not a particularly bright man, he was by no means a mere figurehead to the government, such as his father and his grandfather had been. On the contrary, he was strong, earnest, and pig-headed as ever king could be. He was determined to rule England himself, and he certainly exercised more power than any other of her Hanoverian sovereigns.

With his usual obstinate wrong-headedness, he plunged immediately into a quarrel with the American colonies. This was really but an echo of his struggle in England. William Pitt, the statesman who had brought the French war to its triumphant close, was the leader of the party against the new King. The demand of the opposition on both sides of the Atlantic was that they should be taxed only by some body which they themselves elected to represent them—that "Taxation without representation is tyranny." The English reform party fought King George with such votes as they possessed; the Americans, having no votes at all, had to fight him with arms.

Thus England was not a unit against us. There was always a party in Parliament upholding our cause, and King George felt the necessity of severity

the more strongly and the more obstinately, because our earlier victories involved the triumph of his personally hated enemies at home.

The real issue between England and America rose out of the fact that the colonies had no voice in the choosing of Parliament. Hence Parliament legislated not for their benefit, but for that of the British merchants who controlled it. The colonies were treated merely as a source from which England was to draw profit. Vexatious laws, "the Navigation Acts," controlled the shipping trade, and prevented the colonies from dealing with any country but England. Sometimes they could not even traffic with each other.

These laws had long been evaded by wholesale smuggling, but in 1761 King George determined that they should be rigorously enforced. For that purpose he appointed custom officers and gave them "Writs of Assistance," which allowed them to force a way into any house they chose, and search for smuggled goods. The colonists were much incensed over this, and James Otis, the leading lawyer of Massachusetts, made against the writs a speech so eloquent and convincing that it has been called the cornerstone of American liberty.

The avowed purpose of the English King and Parliament, both in this and in later measures, was to exact from the colonies a share of the expenses of the French and Indian War. There seemed some justice in this, for the war had been begun in America, England had sent troops to help the colonists, and the cost of the war had doubled her already enormous national debt. On the other hand, the colonists urged that the mother country's main expenditures had been in other lands than America, that she had gained an empire in recompense, and that the colonies had already paid a heavy price in both men and money, a price which they could ill afford, and which in proportion to their resources far exceeded the cost to England.

Parliament had never laid a direct tax on the colonies, and it began now by hinting that the various provincial legislatures had better gather by their own methods the money England desired. Since, however, the legislatures failed to act, Parliament in 1765 passed two laws, whose final issue probably no man in either country at that time foresaw.

One of these measures was called the "Quartering Act." It relieved England of a portion of her expensive army by sending it to the colonies, where the inhabitants were ordered to find it "quarters"—that is, lodgings. The reason given for the presence of the troops in time of peace, was that they would check rebellion in Canada and keep the Indians in subjection. But the Americans had already endured the insolence of British military men; they could not bear to have their homes invaded, they felt the law was really a threat against themselves, and they much preferred to undertake their own protection.

As for Canada, it was utterly exhausted; and since the British troops remained in the seaport cities, while the Indians were on the far frontier beyond the Appalachian Mountains, it is difficult to see that either party had any very strong influence upon the other.

The second measure passed by Parliament was the now celebrated "Stamp Act," which sought to raise a direct revenue from the colonies for the payment of the British soldiers to be sent there. It ordered that all legal documents and all publications in America must bear stamps purchased from the Government. This act, as the colonists saw, struck at the very root of their liberties. If Parliament could exact money from them on one article without their consent, it could do the same on everything else. They were at its mercy. For the first time their protest advanced from words to open tumult. In several places the stamps were burned; a procession in New York carried through the streets a copy of the Stamp Act, labelled "The folly of England and the ruin of America."

In Virginia, the eloquent orator, Patrick Henry, led the legislature in passing a series of resolutions flatly declaring that neither Parliament nor King had any right to tax them. Tradition represents Henry's speech as sounding the note of defiance in no uncertain tones. "Cæsar," he cried, "had his Brutus; Charles the First his Cromwell; and George the Third——"

"Treason! Treason!" interrupted both friends and enemies.

"May profit by their example," concluded the orator defiantly. "If that be treason, make the most of it!"

Delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York and passed a "Declaration of Rights" similar to that of Virginia. The day on which the Stamp Act went into effect was made a day of mourning throughout the entire country. Church bells were tolled, and buildings draped in black.

Frightened by the widespread and solemn anger, not a single agent of the Government offered his stamps for sale. After a short pause, business was continued without them. Books and papers were published as before, and the American merchants began those agreements which afterward became so important, refusing to trade with England till the offensive law was repealed.

The English Government was astonished and a little awed. Pitt was openly exultant. "I rejoice," he cried out in Parliament, "I rejoice that America has resisted." As a means of procuring money the tax was a flat failure, and sooner than use force to collect it, Parliament repealed the obnoxious Stamp Act the following year.

Money from America King George was determined to have. His supporters were growing stronger in Parliament, and in 1767 they passed a law placing a duty upon many articles largely imported into the colonies. The

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